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Spatiotemporal distribution and microbial assimilation of polyamines in a mesotrophic lake

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Running head: Polyamine variability and bacterial assimilation

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Abstract

We examined seasonal and spatial variations of dissolved free polyamines (DFPA) in the large mesotrophic prealpine Lake Zurich (Switzerland). An ion-pairing liquid chromatography method with mass spectrometric detection was optimized for the quantification of DFPA without prior concentration or derivatization. Total DFPA concentrations varied between 0.4 and 11 nM in winter and spring of 2015, respectively. Polyamine concentrations were highest in the epilimnion during the phytoplankton growth phase, and reflected occurrence patterns of diatoms. Putrescine consistently dominated the DFPA pool throughout the season whereas norspermidine was detected only once in spring. Incubations with ^{13}C -labeled putrescine revealed concentration-dependent uptake rates ($3.2 - 5 \text{ nM h}^{-1}$) and short turnover times ($2.4 - 4.4 \text{ h}$). In contrast, incorporation rates into biomass measured with ^{14}C -labeled putrescine were substantially lower (0.9 nM h^{-1}), indicating that this compound was predominantly respired. Uptake kinetics moreover suggested that putrescine in situ uptake rates were limited by low ambient concentrations. Competition assays revealed that putrescine uptake could only be inhibited by excess concentrations of another polyamine (spermidine), but not by amino acids. Bacteria affiliated with *Limnohabitans* and the acI lineage of Actinobacteria were identified as the taxa with the highest fraction ($25 - 32 \%$) of putrescine-incorporating cells. This compound was also utilized by Alphaproteobacteria, Cyclobacteriaceae, diatoms and cyanobacteria. Overall, our data point to fast turnover of putrescine by different microorganisms, implying the importance of this substrate as an attractive energy source.

Introduction

Polyamines occur in every living cell and play an important role in various cellular processes, such as the stabilization of nucleic acids, transcription, translation, cell growth and proliferation, or the functioning of ion channels (Kusano et al. 2008). They also contribute to membrane stability and are involved in cellular stress responses (Tabor and Tabor 1985; Igarashi and Kashiwagi 2000; Jantaro et al. 2003). In aquatic systems polyamines are found in both, algae and bacteria (Hamana and Matsuzaki 1982, 1992). Phytoplankton exudation, viral lysis or grazing are among the key processes responsible for the release of dissolved free polyamines (DFPA) into the free water zone. Another important source of DFPA is the degradation of proteins and amino acids (Höfle 1984; Lu et al. 2014).

Current knowledge about the distribution, uptake, and fate of polyamines in aquatic systems is scarce, because most analyses of labile nitrogen-bearing organic compounds have been limited to amino acids. Only a few studies have examined DFPA concentrations in marine samples documenting that putrescine and spermidine typically dominate the DFPA pool (Lee and Jørgensen 1995; Nishibori 2001; Lu et al. 2014). However, DFPA concentrations and composition may temporarily change during phytoplankton blooms of diverse taxa (e.g. *Chatonella* spp., *Gymnodinium* spp.), when also unusual polyamines like norspermidine or caldopentamine could be present. These polyamines are mainly involved in growth regulation which is a function common to all polyamines (Nishibori and Nishijima 2004; Nishibori et al. 2009). The intracellular polyamine concentrations are usually at μM levels (Hamana and Matsuzaki 1982; Tabor and Tabor 1985) which contrasts their low sub-nM to nM amounts in ambient waters, with marked temporal and depth variations (Lee and Jørgensen 1995; Nishibori et al. 2003; Lu et al. 2014). The low DFPA concentrations could be explained by their efficient uptake via specific transport systems (Tabor and Tabor 1966;

Igarashi and Kashiwagi 1999). Polyamine uptake rates are similar to those of amino acids, but the fraction of polyamine-derived C assimilated by bacteria and the contribution of polyamines to bacterial C and N demands is typically lower than for amino acids (Höfle 1984; Liu et al. 2015). Planktonic microorganisms capable of DFPA utilization are not well characterized. Recent evidence from metagenomic data suggested that a substantial fraction of marine bacterioplankton, including *Roseobacter*- and SAR11-affiliated bacteria, Alpha-, Beta-, and Gammaproteobacteria, Actinobacteria and Flavobacteria, harbors genes for transport and degradation of polyamines (Moran et al. 2007; Mou et al. 2011; Ghylis et al. 2014).

DFPA in seawater have been previously determined by liquid chromatography after a one- or a two-step fluorometric derivatization (Nishibori 2001; Lu et al. 2014). Other methods based on liquid chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry (LC-MS) for the detection of underivatized polyamines have been applied in clinical (Häkkinen et al. 2013; Gosetti et al. 2013) or in food quality control applications (Gosetti et al. 2007; Sirocchi et al. 2014). None of the previous detection methods has been applied to and validated for freshwater samples.

The goals of our study were to adapt a previously described technique employing ion-pairing chromatography with mass spectrometric detection (Häkkinen et al. 2007) for the direct quantification of DFPA in lake water and to apply the optimized LC-MS method to examine the seasonal and spatial changes in DFPA concentrations in the large mesotrophic prealpine Lake Zurich (Switzerland). We also determined the uptake, incorporation and uptake kinetics of putrescine in short-term incubations with isotope-labeled tracers to assess its dynamics and importance to microbial consumers. Another objective was to investigate inhibition of putrescine uptake by a competition experiment with amino acids and another

polyamine to reveal uptake preferences of heterotrophic consumers for putrescine. Finally, we aimed to identify planktonic microbes involved in putrescine utilization by microautoradiography and fluorescence in situ hybridization (MAR-FISH). Based on previous studies (Moran et al. 2007; Mou et al. 2011; Ghylis et al. 2014), we hypothesized that putrescine will be assimilated by a broad range of planktonic bacteria.

Materials and methods

Reagents

Standard compounds 1,3-diaminopropane dihydrochloride (Dap, >98%), 1,5-diaminopentane dihydrochloride (Cad, >98%), 1,7-diaminoheptane (Dah, internal standard, >98%) and Bis(3-aminopropyl) amine (Nsd, >98%), N-(3-aminopropyl)-1,4-butanediamine trihydrochloride (Spd, $\geq 99.5\%$) and N,N'-Bis(3-aminopropyl)-1,4-butanediamine tetrahydrochloride (Spm, $\geq 99.5\%$) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. 1,4-diaminobutane dihydrochloride (Put, $\geq 99.0\%$) was obtained from Fluka. Structures of polyamines used in this study are shown in Suppl. Table 1. 1,4- ^{13}C butanediamine dihydrochloride (^{13}C -Put) was from American Radiolabeled Chemicals, Inc. Heptafluorobutyric acid (HFBA, 99.5%), propionic acid (PrA, 99.5%) and formic acid (98%) were from Sigma-Aldrich. LC-MS grade acetonitrile (ACN) was from J.T. Baker, Avantor. Water used for preparation of solvents and standard stock solutions was purified in a Milli-Q Direct 8 system (Millipore).

Sampling

Water samples were taken biweekly from 4 February to 21 October 2015 at the deepest point of Lake Zurich, a large mesotrophic prealpine lake (406 m above sea level, area 65.06 km², max. depth 136 m, mean depth 51.7 m, residence time 440 d, 47°17'N, 8°36'E,

Switzerland) (Bossard et al. 2001). The samples were collected with a Friedinger sampler at depths of 0, 5, 10, 20, 30, 40, 60, 80 and 100 m. Depths were selected according to an ongoing long-term sampling campaign performed in Lake Zurich. Subsamples were filled in sterile 50 mL plastic tubes and kept in a closed isolated box until further processing. Sampling took place approximately at 10 a.m. and subsamples of 1 mL were filtered roughly 1 h later employing syringe filters (IC Acrodisc filter, 0.2 μ m Supor membrane, PALL Life Sciences) pre-washed with 1 mL of Milli-Q water. Samples were stored at - 24°C in 2 mL glass vials (Glastechnik Gräfenroda) until analysis. In parallel, subsamples of 1 mL for bacterial abundance were fixed with formalin (final concentration, 2%), stained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; final concentration, 1 μ g mL⁻¹) and quantified by flow cytometry (inFlux V-GS, Becton Dickinson) as described previously (Salcher et al. 2011). Vertical profiles of chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) concentrations were measured with a TS-16-12 fluoroprobe (bbe Moldaemke, Kronshagen, Germany). This multiple wavelength probe can determine different phytoplankton groups such as diatoms, chlorophytes, cryptophytes and the cyanobacterium *Planktothrix rubescens* based on different fluorescence excitation spectra of the mentioned phototrophic organisms (Beutler et al. 2002). For incubations with stable isotope and radiolabeled putrescine, samples from Lake Zurich were collected with a Friedinger sampler at 5 m depth into 1 L glass bottles on 24 and 30 September 2015, 18 March 2016, 27 April 2016 and 6 July 2016 (incubations I – V). Additional samples from the depth of 120 m were collected on 27 April 2016. Samples were kept at in situ temperature in the dark until further processing.

Furthermore, surface samples from different other lakes were collected only once to verify the recovery and performance of the HPLC-MS method on environmental samples of different matrix composition. The following lakes were sampled: Hüttnersee (eutrophic, 658

m above sea level, area 0.165 km², max. depth 13.3 m, mean depth 6.3 m, residence time 120 d, 47°14' N, 8°38' E), Türlensee (mesotrophic, 643 m above sea level, area 0.497 km², max. depth 22 m, residence time 730 d, 47°16' N, 8°30' E) (information obtained from Office of waste, water, energy and air, Canton Zurich, http://www.awel.zh.ch/internet/audirektion/awel/de/wasser/messdaten/see_qualitaet.html). Thalwiler Waldweiher (eutrophic, 47°28' N, 8°56' E) and Seleger Moor (dystrophic, 47°25' N, 8°51' E).

Ion-pairing liquid chromatography

Polyamines were analyzed with an HPLC system (1260 Infinity series, Agilent Technologies) provided with a degasser, binary pump, autosampler and column oven. Analytes were separated on a YMC-Triart C-18 column (150 x 3 mm, 3 µm particle size, YMC) at a flow rate of 500 µL min⁻¹. Solvent A (Milli-Q water) and solvent B (ACN) were amended with 0.1% HFBA and 2% PrA. Samples of 100 µL and internal standard (Dah, final concentration 100 nM) were injected. A gradient elution started from 5% B to 50% B from 0 to 6 min, then 50% B was kept for 4.5 min, then 50-70% B from 10.5 to 10.6 min and 70% B was maintained for 3.4 min. Afterwards the gradient was returned from 70% to 5% B and column was re-equilibrated from 14.1 to 25 min. Column was thermostated at 35°C and samples were kept at 4°C during analyses. Prior to each measurement, column was equilibrated for 5 min at 95% A until the pressure was stable. Up to four blanks were run using the gradient elution above. Samples were amended with HFBA (final concentration 0.1 %) prior to HPLC-MS analyses.

Mass spectrometry

DFPA detection was carried out on an API 5000 triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (AB Sciex) equipped with an electrospray ionization source and a QJet ion guide component. During the multiple reaction monitoring scan (MRM) mode, polyamines were detected in the positive ion mode. Tandem mass spectrometry (MS/MS) analyses were performed to select for pairs of precursor and product ions (transitions) specific for each polyamine. Two transitions with the highest signal intensity were selected per each analyte (only one transition was used for Dap and Dah). Declustering potential (DP), entrance potential (EP), collision energy (CE) and cell exit potential (CXP) parameters were further optimized for each transition (Suppl. Table 2). EP was set for all transitions to 10 V. The lower m/z threshold for all scans was set to 25. To optimize the ion source parameters, 0.1% HFBA and 100% ACN were applied isocratically (50%:50%) at the flow rate of $500 \mu\text{L min}^{-1}$. Ion-spray voltage (IS), temperature (TEM), along with curtain (CUR), collision (CAD) and ion source gas (GS1 and GS2) parameters were optimized for highest signal intensities of the selected transitions using the MRM scan mode. The outcome of the ion source optimization gave the following setting: IS = 1500 V, TEM = 700°C , CUR = 10, CAD = 10, GS1 = 50, GS2 = 60. Nitrogen was applied as curtain, collision and ion source gas. The dwell time was set to 100 ms for all transitions. Data was acquired with the software Analyst (version 1.6.1, AB Sciex) and quantified by the MultiQuant software (version 2.1, AB Sciex) using the corresponding extracted ion chromatograms.

Method precision, limits of detection and quantification

A calibration curve was established for each polyamine transition using dilution series of aqueous stock solutions from 0.2 nM to 100 nM concentrations prepared from one stock solution and the corresponding response factors were calculated using Dah as internal

standard. Prior to injection, dilution series of polyamine standards as well as environmental samples were spiked with internal standard to yield a final concentration of 10 nM. Thus, a constant internal standard concentration was maintained in all samples measured in this study. Limits of detection (LOD) and limits of quantification (LOQ) were determined from the calibration curves of the corresponding polyamine-transitions. LOD was determined as the lowest analyte concentration yielding the signal to noise ratio >2 after correction for blank. LOQ was determined as the lowest polyamine concentration yielding a relative standard deviation of <10% obtained from the triplicate measurements. Method recovery was determined in duplicate samples from different lakes (Lake Zurich, Hüttnersee, Türlensee, Thalwiler Waldweiher, Seleger Moor) amended with ¹³C-labeled Put at a final concentration of 1 nM and 10 nM (Suppl. Table 3).

Putrescine uptake and kinetics

Triplicate samples amended with ¹³C-Put at a final concentration of 10 nM and duplicated controls without labeled putrescine were incubated for 4 to 5 h in the dark at in situ temperature. Subsamples of 1 mL for quantification of DFPA by HPLC-MS taken at 1 h intervals were filtered into glass vials using IC Acrodisc filters (0.2 µm, Pall) and stored at -24°C. This was repeated for each incubation experiment (I-V) (Table 1). In addition, a sample filtered through 0.8 µm filter (Nuclepore, Sterico AG) was incubated in parallel on 6 July 2016 to determine a contribution of free-living bacteria to the total Put uptake. Put turnover time was calculated as the quotient of the total dissolved Put concentration and the uptake rate. Kinetics of Put uptake was investigated on 18 March 2016 in triplicates of 100 mL taken from the depth of 5 m that were spiked with ¹³C-Put to obtain final concentrations of 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 nM. Uptake rate was derived from differences in Put

concentrations after 2 h of incubation. Influence of other compounds on Put uptake was studied in another experiment performed on 18 March 2016. Samples of 100 mL were spiked with ^{13}C -Put (final concentration 10 nM) or with a mixture of ^{13}C -Put (10 nM) and either arginine, ornithine, or spermidine (100 nM each) (Table 1). The incubation period was 4 h and Put concentrations were quantified in 1 h intervals by LC-MS method described above. All incubations were performed at in situ temperatures in the dark. Samples were stored immediately after filtration at -24°C until further measured.

Putrescine incorporation

For bulk incorporation rates triplicate samples of 10 mL were collected into sterile tubes and amended with [1,4- ^{14}C] putrescine (^{14}C -Put, specific activity 110 mCi mmol $^{-1}$, incubations I-II) and [2,3- ^3H] putrescine (^3H -Put, specific activity 60 Ci mmol $^{-1}$, incubations III-IV) from American radiolabeled chemicals to a final concentration of 10 nM. Duplicated controls prefixed with paraformaldehyde (PFA, final concentration 2%) were run in parallel. We used Put labeled with two radioisotopes because (a) incorporation rates measured with ^{14}C -tracer can be directly compared with total uptake rates measured with ^{13}C -Put samples, and (b) ^3H -tracer was found to be advantageous for microautoradiography analyses. All samples were incubated for 2 h in darkness at in situ temperature and subsequently fixed with PFA. Then, subsamples of 5 mL were filtered on 0.2 μm nitrocellulose filters (GSWP, diameter, 25 mm, Millipore) and processed as described by Kirchman (2001). Briefly, filters were washed twice with 5% ice-cold trichloroacetic acid and with 80% ice-cold ethanol to extract protein from microbial cells retained on a filter. Air-dried filters were placed into scintillation vials and dissolved in ethyl acetate. Afterwards scintillation cocktail (Rotosint eco plus, LSC-Universalcocktail, Roth) was added and samples were analyzed with a

scintillation counter (Liquid Scintillation Analyzer, Tri-Carb 3170TR/SL, Perkin Elmer). Radioactivity (as disintegrations per minute) measured in samples corresponded to the amount of Put incorporated into microbial biomass over time. Differences between Put uptake rate (measured with ^{13}C -Put) and the corresponding incorporation rate (measured with ^{14}C -Put and ^3H -Put) were assumed to equal respiration (note that respiration was not directly measured). Put turnover time was calculated by dividing ^{13}C -Put concentration corrected for a natural Put pool by the corresponding uptake rate.

MAR-FISH

Samples of 10 mL were incubated with ^{14}C -Put (10 nM) or ^3H -Put (10 and 100 nM) for 2 h in the dark at in situ temperature and fixed as described for the bulk incorporation experiment. Then, the samples were filtered on 0.2 μm polycarbonate filters (GTTP, 25 mm diameter, Millipore) and washed twice with 1 mL of sterile pre-filtered deionized Milli-Q water (0.2 μm polycarbonate syringe filter, Whatman). CARD-FISH was performed according to Sekar et al. (2003) with the modifications of Neuenschwander et al. (2015). The following oligonucleotide probes were used: EUB338 I-III for most Bacteria (Daims et al. 1999), ALF968 for most Alphaproteobacteria (ALF) (Amann et al. 1997) and BET42a for most Betaproteobacteria (BET) (Manz et al. 1992), acI-853 for the acI lineage of Actinobacteria (acI) (Warnecke et al. 2005), LD12-115 for freshwater SAR11 (LD12) (Neuenschwander et al. 2015), R-BT065 for members of the genus *Limnohabitans* (RBT) (Šimek et al. 2001), PnecC-445 for *Polynucleobacter asymbioticus*, *P. duraque*, *P. yangtzensis*, *P. sinensis* (Hahn et al. 2009, 2016), LimA-23S-1435 for the LimA cluster of *Limnohabitans* (LimA) (Shabarova et al. 2017), LD2_739 for Saprospiraceae (LD2) (Pernthaler et al. 2004) and Cyc715 for Cyclobacteriaceae (Cyc) (Eckert et al. 2012).

Afterwards microautoradiography (MAR) was performed according to Alonso and Pernthaler (2005) with modifications described by Salcher et al. (2008). Slides with hybridized bacterial cells were coated with a NTB emulsion (Carestream) and exposed for 1.5 to 2.5 d in the dark (Table 1). Emulsion was developed and fixed following manufacturer`s recommendations. MAR was performed in incubations I and II, whereas MAR coupled with CARD-FISH was conducted in incubations III and IV (Table 1). MAR-FISH preparations were evaluated with an epifluorescence microscope (Zeiss Axio Imager.M1) equipped with an automated microscopic platform. The option with multisport autofocus was chosen to provide a better focus of the cell layer on the agarose surface. Image quality control was applied to sort out low-quality images (Zeder et al. 2010). Between 500 and 2000 DAPI-stained cells captured from 8-10 images were analyzed per sample.

Results

Optimization of chromatographic conditions

HFBA as well as other volatile perfluorinated organic acids are readily used as ion-pairing reagents in reversed-phase chromatography to allow retention of polar analytes and to improve overall chromatographic performance (Kuhlmann et al. 1995; Gao et al. 2006; Häkkinen et al. 2007). In agreement with a previous study (Häkkinen et al. 2007) we found that HFBA enabled better separation and retention of polyamines than other tested ion-pairing agents (pentafluoropropionic and tridecafluoroheptanoic acid). Gradient elutions with different HFBA concentrations (0.025, 0.05, 0.1, and 0.5 %) were performed and analyzed. The length and mode of the gradient elution was further optimized by investigating different re-equilibration times and concentrations of ACN. We found that a linear ACN gradient with 0.1% HFBA was optimal for polyamine detection (Suppl. Fig. 1a).

Unfortunately the addition of perfluorinated acids often induces signal suppression of analytes during MS detection (Kuhlmann et al. 1995), as also observed in our method. This was substantially ameliorated by also adding propionic acid to both solvents according to previous reports (Kuhlmann et al. 1995; Häkkinen et al. 2007). The tested column showed markedly better separation performance if the elution started with 5% ACN, which was essential for obtaining symmetrical peak shapes and for reducing peak tailing or splitting. To ensure the stable chromatographic conditions and reproducible retention times between individual injections, the column was flushed with 70% ACN after the elution of polyamines to remove contaminants followed by a re-equilibration time of 10.9 min. Another key factor for improving the sensitivity of the method was the addition of HFBA (final concentration 0.1%) to samples prior to the analysis. The signal intensities of the analytes further increased, thus making the detection of sub-nM concentrations possible (Suppl. Table 2). Using the optimized LC-MS method, all 7 tested polyamines could be detected within 8 min (Suppl. Fig. 1a). Moreover, the co-eluting compounds Spd/Nsd and ^{12}C -Put/ ^{13}C -Put could be unambiguously quantified by their specific pairs of precursor and product ions (transitions).

Detection limits, recovery and signal interferences

Limits of detection (LOD) ranged between 0.2 - 0.5 nM and limits of quantification (LOQ) were between 0.5 - 5 nM (Suppl. Table 2). The detector response was linear at the lower range of concentrations (0.2 - 20 nM) for all tested polyamines, whereas a non-linear response was observed for Spd and Nsd at higher concentrations (50 - 100 nM), which was due to detector saturation (Suppl. Fig. 2). Recovery was determined as relative differences in the concentration of ^{13}C -labeled putrescine spiked into samples from freshwater habitats of different trophic and matrix complexity (Lake Zurich, Hüttnersee, Türlensee, Thalwiler

Waldweiher and Seleger Moor) compared to signals obtained in Milli-Q water. Recovery varied between 90 – 124 and 97 – 123 % at 1 and 10 nM levels, respectively (Suppl. Table 3). Tested polyamines revealed no major differences in signal intensities and background noise between the environmental samples, implying comparatively low detection limits. There were no remarkable interferences between the individual transitions monitored simultaneously. However, due to the applied mode of separation, i.e. no direct interaction between the column matrix and polyamines, there were signal interferences (likely HFBA adducts) detected for Nsd, Spd and Spm in blank samples (Milli-Q water). Nevertheless, these interferences could be substantially reduced after the optimization of the gradient including the column flushing step after the elution was accomplished. Other polyamines Dap, Put, ¹³C-Put and Cad expressed low and stable background signal intensities in blanks.

Concentrations of individual polyamines and their spatiotemporal distribution

Total DFPA concentrations in Lake Zurich varied greatly between different periods of the season (Fig. 1a). DFPA concentrations were <2 nM in winter. The pool was dominated by Put, which was uniformly distributed throughout the water column with concentrations from <0.5 to 1.5 nM (Fig. 1a). DFPA concentrations markedly increased in spring with the absolute maximum (11 nM) detected in April. Put and Nsd quantitatively dominated the DFPA pool. DFPA concentrations gradually decreased with depth, but there were still approximately 2 nM detected in the depth of 100 m (Fig. 1b). In early summer the concentration pattern of the vertical profile was similar to that in spring, but Nsd was no longer detected in high quantities. Total DFPA concentrations increased to 6 nM (Fig. 1b). In late summer, vertical variations in DFPA concentrations resembled those in winter with total concentrations <2 nM (Fig. 1b). In autumn, there was an increase in DFPA concentrations

(up to 6 nM) and Put was the dominant component of the polyamine pool. However, the decrease in DFPA concentrations with depth was less pronounced than in summer since there were approximately 3 nM between 30 to 100 m (Fig. 1b). Overall, the spatio-temporal variations of Put concentrations tightly coincided with the total DFPA concentrations during the whole study period indicating that Put was the key polyamine in Lake Zurich.

Virtually the whole Chl *a* pool during this sampling campaign was constituted by the filamentous cyanobacterium *Planktothrix rubescens* with the maximum concentration of 30.3 $\mu\text{g Chl } a \text{ L}^{-1}$ by the end of August (Fig. 2a). *P. rubescens* was stratified in the metalimnion (approximately at 15 m) between May and October (Fig. 2a) which was below the depth of maximal DFPA concentrations (Fig. 1). The spatiotemporal distribution of *P. rubescens* tightly coincided with the period of a stable thermal stratification. Concentrations of diatoms were generally low with the maximum of 5.2 $\mu\text{g Chl } a \text{ L}^{-1}$ in the epilimnion recorded in June (early-summer). Diatoms were also detected between April and mid-May (spring) and from July to mid-August (late-summer) at concentrations of 3.4 and 2.9 $\mu\text{g Chl } a \text{ L}^{-1}$, respectively (Fig. 2b). Total bacterial abundances ranged from 0.5 to 4.5 $10^6 \text{ cell mL}^{-1}$ with a maximum detected between mid-May and mid-June (Fig. 2c), which occurred just after periods of elevated DFPA concentrations (Fig. 1a). Bacterial abundances were substantially higher in the upper 20 m of the water column during stratification (mid-April to October).

Incubation experiments with labeled putrescine

Concentrations of labeled Put (^{13}C -Put) non-linearly decreased in all short-term incubation experiments (I-V, Table 1), implying that the tracer was actively utilized by microbes (Fig. 3). Uptake rates varied between 3.2 and 5 nM h^{-1} within the initial incubation period (0-2 h) (Fig. 3a, 3b), while those at the end of the incubation (2-5 h) ranged from 0.3

to 1 nM h⁻¹. The maximum Put uptake rate of 5 nM h⁻¹ was detected on 6 July 2016 (incubation V) (Fig. 3c). Concentrations of non-labeled (natural) Put were mostly around 2 nM (incubation I-IV), while substantially elevated Put concentrations (12 nM) were found on 6 July 2016 (incubation V). Natural Put concentrations remained virtually constant with only minor changes (0.4 – 1.5 nM) throughout the incubation periods (Fig. 3). Concentrations of natural Put in treatments amended with labeled Put were indistinguishable from those in controls without tracer additions and this was recorded in all incubations (Fig. 3). Total Put incorporation rates, determined in parallel with the radiolabeled tracers, varied between 4 – 37 pM h⁻¹ (³H-Put) and 0.8 – 0.9 nM h⁻¹ (¹⁴C-Put) at the initial (0-2 h) incubation period. Such a large discrepancy and the negligible ³H-Put incorporation rates (<0.01 % of the Put uptake rates measured with ¹³C-Put) imply that ³H-Put incorporation rates were apparently underestimated. This could be potentially explained by a different fate or loss of the ³H-label during incubations. In comparison, ¹⁴C-Put incorporation rates were 18 – 19 % of the corresponding uptake rates suggesting that Put was mostly respired (Table 2), which is in the range of previously published values (Liu et al. 2015). Put turnover times varied between 2.4 – 4.4 h.

Uptake kinetics of putrescine were examined in another incubation experiment (18 March 2016) using ¹³C-Put. The ¹³C-Put uptake rate changed with Put concentration (1 – 50 nM) according to a hyperbolic curve following the Michaelis-Menten kinetics (Johnson and Goody 2011). Interestingly, the measured uptake rate at 100 nM concentration was markedly higher and it could not be fitted by the hyperbolic curve (Fig. 4a). The maximal uptake rate (V_{max}) and the half saturation constant (K_m) were 6.1 nM h⁻¹ and 10.9 nM (Fig. 4b), respectively. The effects of amino acids (Arg, Orn) and other polyamines (Spd) on the uptake of Put were investigated in an experiment with epilimnetic water from Lake Zurich on 18

March 2016. Put concentrations decreased equally rapidly in treatments amended only with Put or with a mixture of Put and either Arg or Orn (Fig. 5). In contrast, the uptake of Put was inhibited by the excess amount of Spd (Fig. 5).

Identification of putrescine-incorporating cells

Despite measurable incorporation rates obtained with ^{14}C -Put in September 2015 (incubation I and II, Table 2), no cells with visible putrescine incorporation could be identified by MAR (data not shown). Therefore, ^3H -Put was used in incubations III and IV where on average 11.3 % of total DAPI-stained cells showed active Put incorporation (Fig. 6). The fraction of Put-incorporating cells was further identified by combining MAR with CARD-FISH (MAR-FISH, Figs. 6, 7). Both the acI lineage of *Actinobacteria* (acI) and the R-BT lineage of the genus *Limnohabitans* (R-BT) revealed the highest percentage (25 – 32 %) of Put-incorporating cells (Fig. 6). Betaproteobacteria (BET) and the acI lineage of *Actinobacteria* (acI) were the most abundant bacterioplankton components except for the deep water sample (120 m) from 27 April 2016 which was entirely dominated by BET. R-BT formed a large fraction of BET at the surface samples (5 m) and it showed a higher percentage of Put-active cells than BET. In contrast, the LimA lineage of the genus *Limnohabitans* (LimA) with relative abundances of 3 % revealed only a low fraction of Put-incorporating cells (4-8 %). Alphaproteobacteria (ALF) was the minor component of the community (3-4 %) but approximately 15 % of ALF incorporated Put at the surface, which was higher than the community average (Fig. 6). On the other hand, nearly no ALF incorporated Put in the sample from 120 m. Cyclobacteriaceae (Cyc) accounted for 4 – 8 % of the assemblage and their proportions of Put-active cells varied between 6 – 13 % (Fig. 6). Bacteria from other tested lineages such as the PnecC, LD12 and LD2 were found in very

low proportions (<2 %) and showed no visible Put incorporation (data not shown). In addition, *Asterionella sp.* (diatom) and *P. rubescens* (cyanobacterium) were also found to incorporate Put (Fig. 7e, h).

Discussion

Detection of DFPA in freshwaters

Our HPLC-MS method allowed direct detection of sub-nM concentrations of underivatized DFPA in diverse freshwater habitats at threshold concentrations that were comparable to or lower than previously reported ones (Nishibori 2001, 2003; Lu et al. 2014; Liu et al. 2015; Lu et al. 2015). The limits of detection of our method ranged between 0.05 - 0.5 nM (Suppl. Table 2), which is sufficiently sensitive for the accurate quantification of compounds at low to sub-nM levels in freshwater samples (Hornák and Pernthaler 2014; Hornák et al. 2016). Although Nsd and Spd could not be separated chromatographically, their unambiguous quantification was possible by mass spectrometry (MS) using the compound-specific pairs of precursor and product ions (transitions, Suppl. Table. 2). MS detection could, moreover, distinguish between natural Put and its isotope-labeled analog thereby providing a significant advantage over conventional fluorescence or pulse-amperometric detectors. The method also allows for a higher throughput (of 3 samples per hour) than reported previously (Nishibori 2001; 2003; Lu et al. 2014) and only requires addition of the ion-pairing reagent to samples prior to analysis. Despite the latter, the tested column maintained very stable and reproducible chromatographic conditions with low levels of background signal, allowing for the processing of large quantities of environmental samples without deterioration of detection quality.

Spatiotemporal variations of DFPA in Lake Zurich

This study provides a first spatiotemporal characterization of DFPA concentrations in a natural freshwater system. The total DFPA concentrations in Lake Zurich are comparable with those in seawater (Nishibori 2001; Nishibori et al. 2003; Lu et al. 2014; Liu et al. 2015) and are substantially lower than in a eutrophic coastal salt pond (Lee and Jørgensen 1995). Put and Spd usually dominate in coastal seawater (Badini et al. 1994; Nishibori 2001), while other DFPA such as Nsd, Cad are reported only sporadically. This is in agreement with our data (Fig. 1b): Put represented the quantitatively most important DFPA in all depths of Lake Zurich throughout the study period, whereas Spm and Dap were consistently low (Fig. 1b). Elevated concentrations of Nsd were only observed during spring (Fig. 1b, 15 April). Similar to other polyamines, Nsd plays an important role in cell growth and development (Kusano et al. 2008). Nsd was previously detected in seawater during a bloom of the dinoflagellate *Gymnodinium* spp. (Nishibori et al. 2003). Members of this genus are also common in Lake Zurich (Posch et al. 2015). Nevertheless, since no systematic analyses of the exudates of different phytoplankton taxa were performed we can only speculate about the potential source of Nsd in our samples.

Put concentrations in a coastal salt pond followed the pattern of primary production (Lee and Jørgensen 1995), suggesting that actively photosynthesizing algae were the major source of DFPA. In our study, the concentrations of total DFPA increased markedly in spring (Fig. 1a), which coincided with increased diatom chl *a* concentrations (Fig. 2a). Higher amounts of exudates are released during the spring phytoplankton bloom and these exudates are a known source of polyamines (Höfle 1984; Lu et al. 2014). In addition, HPLC-MS analyses confirmed the presence of large quantities of intracellular polyamines in cultures of planktonic diatoms (genera *Gomphonema* and *Aulacoseira*), including isolates from Lake

Zurich (*Fragilaria* sp.) (Suppl. Fig. 1b). Thus, it is likely that DFPA in our study system were at least partly derived from diatoms during spring.

However, the overall relationship between chl *a* (and, in turn, primary production) and DFPA concentrations in Lake Zurich appears to be more complex (Figs. 1, 2). The filamentous cyanobacterium *Planktothrix rubescens* is the dominant primary producer in Lake Zurich (Bossard et al. 2001; Garneau et al. 2015). It stratifies in the metalimnion (at approximately 12-15 m depth) from May to October (Fig. 2a) (Yankova et al. 2016) which is below the depth of maximal DFPA concentrations. This species releases only negligible amounts of extracellular products (Feuillade et al. 1990). It is, therefore, unlikely that DFPA originated from *P. rubescens*. However, the presence of diatoms cannot account for the increase in DFPA concentrations at the end of September (Figs. 1a, 2b), which might be related to heterotrophic processes such as protein degradation (Höfle 1984), grazing or cell lysis (e.g. Nagata 2000). On 9 April 2015 elevated DFPA concentrations of ~2 nM were found in the hypolimnion (Fig. 1a), contrasting with the low concentrations of ~0.5 nM in the remaining limnological year. This might be interpreted in the context of sedimentation of senescent phytoplankton cells from the epilimnion and their subsequent decomposition in deeper water layers (Grossart and Simon 1998).

Uptake of labeled putrescine

The concentration of ¹³C- Put decreased non-linearly in all dark incubations (I-III and V) (Fig. 3), implying that the Put uptake rate decreased proportionally to the concentration of the tracer. These time-course changes in the uptake rate could be due to the upregulation of membrane transporters, but might also result from differences between microbial populations in the number of transporters and their respective saturation. Put uptake rates varied between

4.4 - 5 nM h⁻¹ (incubations I, II, and V, Fig. 3) which is comparable to those in coastal seawater, and higher than in open ocean waters (Liu et al. 2015). Concentrations of the tracer substantially exceeded those of the natural Put in September 2015 (incubations I and II, Fig. 3a, b). Thus, our measurements reflected the potential (maximal) rather than the realized uptake rates at that time point. By contrast, the concentrations of the labeled (tracer) and natural Put were roughly equal in July 2016 (incubation V, Fig. 3c), suggesting that the estimated Put uptake rate was likely close to the in situ one. Moreover, the concentration of the natural Put pool remained stable over the course of the latter incubation, implying rapid recycling (i.e., production) of this compound. Assuming that the natural and isotopically labeled forms are consumed equally, the pool of dissolved Put at that time point was refilled at a rate that was comparable to its uptake. Our detection method only targets dissolved free polyamines (monomers) readily available to consumers. Therefore, despite stable concentrations of ambient Put, it is unlikely that this Put pool was adsorbed to particles or combined with other compounds which would preclude its consumption.

In September 2015 (incubations I and II, Table 2), approximately 20 % of the Put-derived C taken up by organisms (measured by the ¹³C-labeled tracer) was incorporated into biomass (measured by the ¹⁴C-labeled tracer), which is lower than in coastal seawater (Liu et al. 2015), and than the fraction of C that is typically assimilated from amino acids (Crawford et al. 1974, Jørgensen et al. 1983, Simon and Tilzer 1987). In July 2016 (incubation V, Suppl. Fig. 3), the Put uptake rate in the size fraction <0.8 μm was 66% of the total rate in unfiltered lake water, indicating that a major proportion of Put was taken up by free-living bacteria. This agrees with observations of the consumption of dissolved carbohydrates and amino acids (Weiss and Simon 1999). Nevertheless, the different uptake rates in the filtered and raw lake water indicate that also larger microorganisms or bacteria attached to particles

contributed to Put uptake. However, we caution that the filtration through a polycarbonate membrane resulted in a substantial loss in the concentration of natural Put, which might have caused a bias in our rate measurements (Suppl. Fig. 3). Despite this potential artifact our results nevertheless indicate that the planktonic microbes in Lake Zurich readily consumed Put, as has been reported for marine bacteria (Höfle 1984; Liu et al. 2015). This was, moreover, confirmed by direct microscopic observation (Figs. 6, 7a-d).

Kinetics and inhibition of putrescine uptake

To avoid a non-linear decrease in Put uptake velocity potentially caused by experimental bias (i.e., compositional changes of the microbial assemblage due to prolonged incubation time, arbitrary concentration of the tracer, or down-regulation of membrane transporters) we performed a short-term (2 h) experiment in March 2016 (incubation III, Fig. 4) with different Put concentrations (1 – 100 nM). The relationship between Put concentrations up to 50 nM and uptake rate closely followed Michaelis-Menten kinetics (Johnson and Goody 2011) (Fig 4a). Therefore, Put uptake kinetics were similar to those of leucine and valine (Jørgensen 1992). By contrast, glucose consumption rates in Lake Zurich were constant at 10-30 nM concentrations (Hornák and Pernthaler 2014). In view of Put in situ concentrations (<2 nM), the estimated maximum Put uptake rate (V_{\max}) of 6.1 nM h⁻¹ and the corresponding half-saturation constant (K_m) of 10.9 nM indicate that uptake rates in Lake Zurich were strongly limited by Put availability (Figs. 1, 4a). This corroborates previous reports on the kinetic parameters of amino acid uptake (Burnison and Morita 1974; Bertilsson et al. 2007). Put uptake rate furthermore increased linearly between 1 - 10 nM, demonstrating that bacteria rapidly responded to the realized concentration maxima of this substrate in the lake, as e.g. found in the epilimnion in April 2015 (Fig. 1). The Put uptake rate at the highest

offered concentration (100 nM) was approximately 2 times V_{\max} and thus significantly deviated from the fitted hyperbolic curve (Fig. 3a). This discrepancy could be explained by the results of our microautoradiographic analysis: the filamentous cyanobacterium *P. rubescens* (6 $\mu\text{g Chl } a \text{ L}^{-1}$ at 5 m depth in March 2016) was found to readily incorporate radiolabeled Put at 100 nM but not at 10 nM (Figs. 7g, h).

The uptake of polyamines by bacteria is mainly mediated via a putrescine-specific transport system and a second one that is preferential for spermidine (Tabor and Tabor 1985; Mou et al. 2010). Besides external sources, bacteria can also synthesize Put (and in turn also Spd) from arginine, ornithine or methionine (Tabor and Tabor 1984; 1985). Put uptake in *E. coli* was significantly inhibited upon addition of other polyamines and amino acids (such as ornithine), albeit at μM levels only (Tabor and Tabor 1966). Our competition assay with natural plankton assemblage illustrates that the addition of Spd entirely suppressed heterotrophic Put consumption, whereas the presence of both Put precursor amino acids (ornithine and arginine) did not affect its uptake, as compared to the control amended with Put only (Fig. 5). This confirms the presence of taxa harboring the spermidine-preferential uptake system in the plankton of Lake Zurich, which corresponds with findings from marine metatranscriptomes (Mou et al. 2011). Genes for the two major transport proteins were found in many phyla such as for example Proteobacteria, Cyanobacteria or Actinobacteria (Mou et al. 2010; Ghylin et al. 2014; Kurihara and Suzuki 2015). This suggests that numerous microorganisms harbor multiple parallel transport systems to regulate the uptake of different polyamines according to their actual availability, as reflected by our kinetic measurements (Fig. 4). Our data also document that heterotrophs did not select against putrescine in the presence of free amino acids suggesting a stable preference for polyamines. Moreover, a rapid decrease (50% over 5 h) in the Spd concentration during the competition assay implies

that the heterotrophic Spd uptake rate is comparable to that of Put. However, the negligible Spd concentrations in Lake Zurich likely limit its importance to bacterioplankton consumers, as previously reported for N-acetylglucosamine (Hornák and Pernthaler 2014).

Identification of Put incorporating cells

Despite measurable incorporation rates obtained with ^{14}C -Put (incubations I and II, Table 2), no cells with visible Put assimilation could be detected by MAR (data not shown). Thus, additional MAR analyses were performed using ^3H -Put, which yielded a specific MAR signal clearly distinguishable from the negative controls. This discrepancy might be due to the higher specific activity of the ^3H -labeled tracer (60 Ci mmol^{-1}) compared to the ^{14}C label (110 mCi mmol^{-1}), likely resulting in a higher amount of silver grains in the near vicinity of cells (Fig. 7).

Using MAR combined with CARD-FISH (Alonso and Pernthaler 2005) we provide first direct evidence of Put assimilation at 10 nM concentration by different groups of freshwater bacterioplankton (Figs. 6, 7). Moreover, the summed abundances of the individual taxa of Put incorporating bacteria corresponded well to the fraction of all DAPI-stained bacteria with positive MAR signals (11 %), indicating that we successfully identified the large majority of Put assimilating planktonic bacteria. The highest fractions (20 – 30 %) of Put incorporating cells were affiliated with the acI lineage of Actinobacteria and with Betaproteobacteria, notably the R-BT lineage of the genus *Limnohabitans* (Fig. 6b). In comparison, only 4 – 7 % of bacteria affiliated with the recently described LimA cluster of the genus *Limnohabitans* (Shabarova et al. 2017) incorporated Put. The bacterioplankton assemblage of Lake Zurich during the growing season is numerically dominated by Actinobacteria and Betaproteobacteria (Salcher et al. 2008, 2013; Eckert et al. 2012), which

further emphasizes the quantitative importance of these groups as Put consumers. Our results confirm the consumption of Put by members of the acI lineage of Actinobacteria, as hypothesized from the reconstruction of the respective metabolic pathway in single-cell amplified genomes (Ghylin et al. 2014). Genome sequences of *Limnohabitans planktonicus* (Kasalický et al. 2010) and other *Limnohabitans* isolates (Zeng et al., 2012) also indicate the presence of polyamine transporters. In contrast, no such uptake mechanism was found in members of the *Polynucleobacter*-C cluster (Hahn et al. 2009, 2016) which agrees with our MAR analyses. This points at differences in substrate preferences between these sympatric betaproteobacterial lineages, as has been shown before for other labile DOC compounds (Salcher et al. 2013). Other epilimnetic populations with fractions of active cells above the community average (11%) were affiliated with Cyclobacteriaceae and Alphaproteobacteria (Fig. 6b). However, the common freshwater alphaproteobacterial LD12 lineage (Salcher et al. 2011) did not show positive MAR signals, which may reflect their suggested oligotrophic lifestyle. Therefore, lower Put concentrations (e.g. 1 nM) or longer incubation times should be tested to confirm the MAR results of our study.

The planktonic diatom *Asterionella* sp. and the cyanobacterium *P. rubescens* incorporated Put at 10 and 100 nM concentrations, respectively (Fig. 7e, h). This agrees with previous reports on the uptake of diverse monomers by *P. rubescens* (e.g.: Zotina et al. 2003) and diatoms (Tuchman et al. 2006), by which these primarily phototrophic organisms may satisfy significant fractions of their nitrogen and carbon demands. In *Asterionella* sp., the number of silver grains, which is roughly proportional to the amount of assimilated Put (Horňák et al., 2012), visibly increased at 100 nM (Fig. 7f) suggesting a concentration-dependent Put incorporation. It remains to be investigated whether diatoms can also assimilate Put at the low ambient concentrations (<2 nM) that are more frequently

encountered in Lake Zurich. Finally, several bacterial taxa in the hypolimnion showed a comparable potential for Put assimilation (Fig. 6), even though the in situ concentrations of this substrate were much lower than in the epilimnion (Fig 1). As in the case of Spd incorporation this again demonstrates a “preparadness” of bacterioplankton populations to utilize a substrate despite its apparent rarity.

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Figure Legends:

Fig. 1: (a) Spatiotemporal distribution of total DFPA concentrations (nM) in Lake Zurich from February to October 2015. (b) Concentrations of individual DFPA from one selected sampling date in each season (indicated by vertical dashed lines) of 2015. Dap = diaminopropane, Put = putrescine, Spd = spermidine, Spm = spermine, Nsd = norspermidine

Fig. 2: Concentrations of (a) *Planktothrix rubescens*, (b) diatoms (both as $\mu\text{g Chl } a \text{ L}^{-1}$), and (c) total bacterial abundances ($10^6 \text{ cells mL}^{-1}$) in the upper 25 m of Lake Zurich from February to October 2015. Data is scaled to the maximum of the corresponding parameter.

Fig. 3: Temporal changes in concentrations of natural (^{12}C -Put) and isotopically labeled putrescine (^{13}C -Put) in selected incubation experiments (I, II, and V) conducted with unfiltered epilimnetic samples (5 m) from Lake Zurich during September 2015 (a, b) and July 2016 (c). Controls (Ctrl) that were not amended with ^{13}C -Put show concentrations of natural putrescine only. Values are means of triplicates. Error bars show standard deviations.

Fig. 4: (a) ^{13}C -putrescine uptake rate as a function of its concentration in unfiltered samples taken from Lake Zurich on 18 March 2016. The hyperbolic curve following the Michaelis-Menten kinetics is fitted to data obtained from a 2 h incubation period. V_{max} = maximum uptake rate. K_m = half saturation constant. Values are means of triplicates. Error bars show relative standard deviations. (b) The corresponding double reciprocal (Lineweaver-Burk) plot.

Fig. 5: Time-course of ^{13}C -labeled putrescine (^{13}C -Put) concentrations in eplimnetic samples (5 m) collected on 18 March 2016. Samples were amended with ^{13}C -Put or with a mixture of ^{13}C -Put and either arginine (Arg), ornithine (Orn), and spermidine (Spd). Arg, Orn, and Spd were added at 100 nM each. Values are means of triplicates. Error bars show standard deviations.

Fig. 6: (a) Relative abundances (as % of DAPI-stained cells) and (b) fractions of cells with visible putrescine incorporation (as % of hybridized cells) affiliated with Betaproteobacteria (BET), the R-BT lineage of the genus *Limnohabitans* (RBT); the LimA lineage of the genus *Limnohabitans* (LimA), the acI lineage of Actinobacteria (acI), Alphaproteobacteria (ALF), and Cyclobacteriaceae (Cyc). Values are means of triplicates. Error bars show standard deviations. A horizontal dashed line indicates the average Put incorporation (as % of DAPI-stained cells).

Fig. 7: Micrographs of cells assayed by MAR-FISH. Red colour indicates hybridized bacterial cells (a-d) or chlorophyll *a* autofluorescence (e-h) and blue colour DAPI-stained cells. Active putrescine incorporation is indicated by dark silver grains in near vicinity of cells. (a) acI lineage of Actinobacteria; (b) Betaproteobacteria, (c) Alphaproteobacteria; (d) Cyclobacteriaceae, (e) diatom *Asterionella* sp. incubated with 10 and (f) 100 nM ^3H -putrescine, (g) cyanobacterium *Planktothrix rubescens* incubated with 10 and (h) 100 nM ^3H -putrescine. All bacteria were incubated with 10 nM ^3H -putrescine. Scale bars show 5 μm (a-d) and 50 μm (e-h), respectively. Images were adjusted for brightness, contrast and colour saturation.

880 **Tables:**

881 **Table 1:** Overview of experimental incubations with stable isotope- and radiolabeled
882 putrescine performed with samples from Lake Zurich during 2015-2016. Samples were taken
883 from the depths of 5 and 120 m and incubated in triplicates for 2-5 h in the dark as unfiltered
884 (raw) or after filtration ($<0.8 \mu\text{m}$). Samples were amended with 10 nM of either ^{13}C - or
885 $^{14}\text{C}/^3\text{H}$ -labeled putrescine. Additional samples spiked with variable concentrations of ^{13}C - (1-
886 100 nM) or ^3H -labeled putrescine (10, 100 nM) were incubated on 18 March 2016. Cells with
887 visible putrescine incorporation were detected by microautoradiography (MAR) or by
888 microautoradiography combined with CARD-FISH (MAR-FISH). MAR preparations were
889 exposed for 1.5-2.5 days in the dark. *samples were incubated with putrescine (10 nM) or
890 with a mixture of putrescine (10 nM) and either ornithine, arginine, and spermidine (100 nM
891 each), nd – not determined

Polyamine variability and bacterial assimilation

Table 1:

Incubation / Experiment	Date	Depth (m)	Sample	¹³ C -labeled putrescine			¹⁴ C/ ³ H-labeled putrescine		
				Volume (mL)	Concentration (nM)	Period (h)	Concentration (nM)	Detection	Exposure (d)
I / Uptake	24 Sept. 2015	5	raw	1000	10	0-5	10	¹⁴ C-MAR	1.5
II / Uptake	30 Sept. 2015	5	raw	1000	10	0-5	10	¹⁴ C-MAR	1.5
III / Kinetics	18 March 2016	5	raw	100	10*	0-4	10, 100	³ H-MAR-FISH	1.5
					1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100	0-2			
IV / MAR-FISH	27 April 2016	5, 120	raw	1000	10	0-4	10	³ H-MAR-FISH	2.5
V / Uptake	6 July 2016	5	raw <0.8 μm	250	10	0-4	10	nd	nd

892 **Table 2:** Putrescine in situ concentrations, uptake and incorporation rates, fractions of
 893 incorporated putrescine and turnover times at the initial phase (0-2 h) of incubation
 894 experiments. Note that putrescine incorporation rates were measured using ^{14}C - and ^3H -
 895 labeled tracer in uptake experiments I-II and III-IV, respectively. *incorporation rates
 896 measured with ^3H -tracer; nd – not determined.

Incubation/ Experiment	Date	Concentration (nM)	Uptake rate (nM h ⁻¹)	Incorporation rate (pM h ⁻¹)	Incorporated fraction (%)	Turnover time (h)
I / Uptake	24 Sept. 2015	2.2	5.0	901.6	18	2.4
II / Uptake	30 Sept. 2015	2.8	4.4	825.7	19	2.9
III / Kinetics	18 March 2016	2	3.7	22*	nd	3.2
IV / MAR-FISH	27 April 2016	1.7 (5 m)	3.2	15.5*	nd	3.7
		0.5 (120 m)	3.4	4.2*	nd	3
		12 (raw)	5.0	36.7*	nd	4.4
V / Uptake	6 July 2016	2.9 (<0.8 μm)	3.3	34.2*	nd	3.9

Figures:

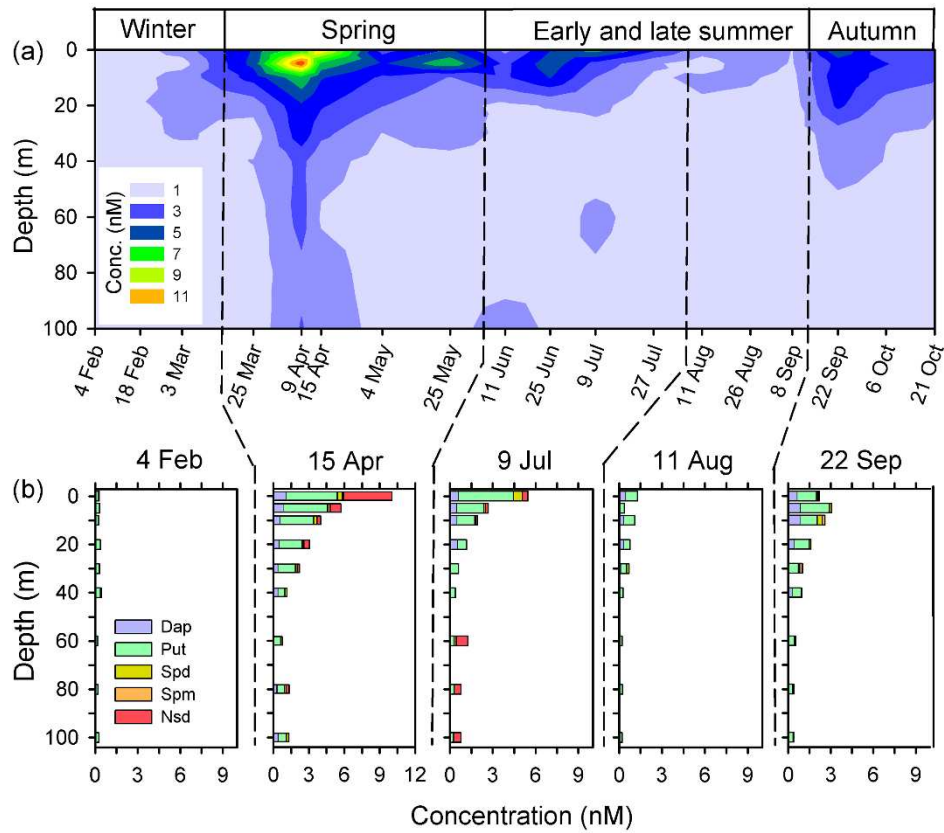


Fig. 1

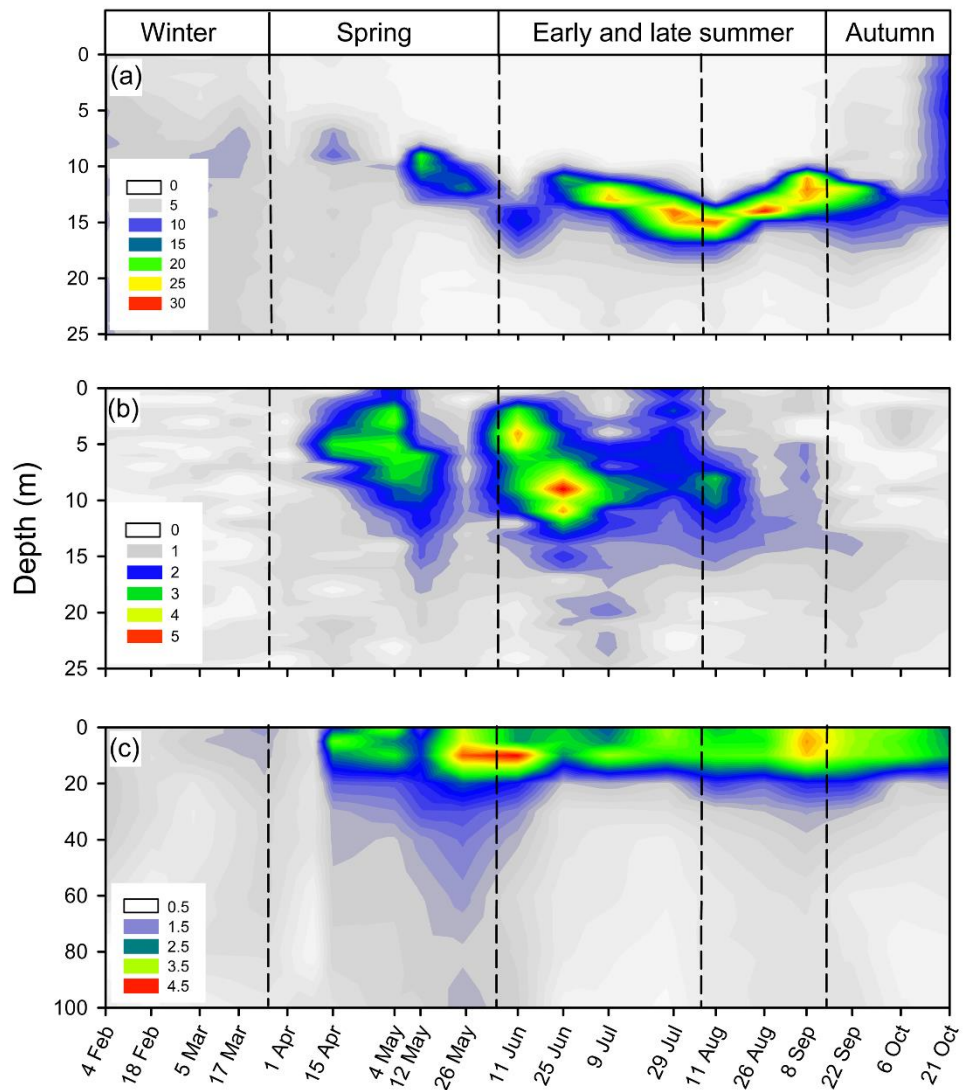


Fig. 2

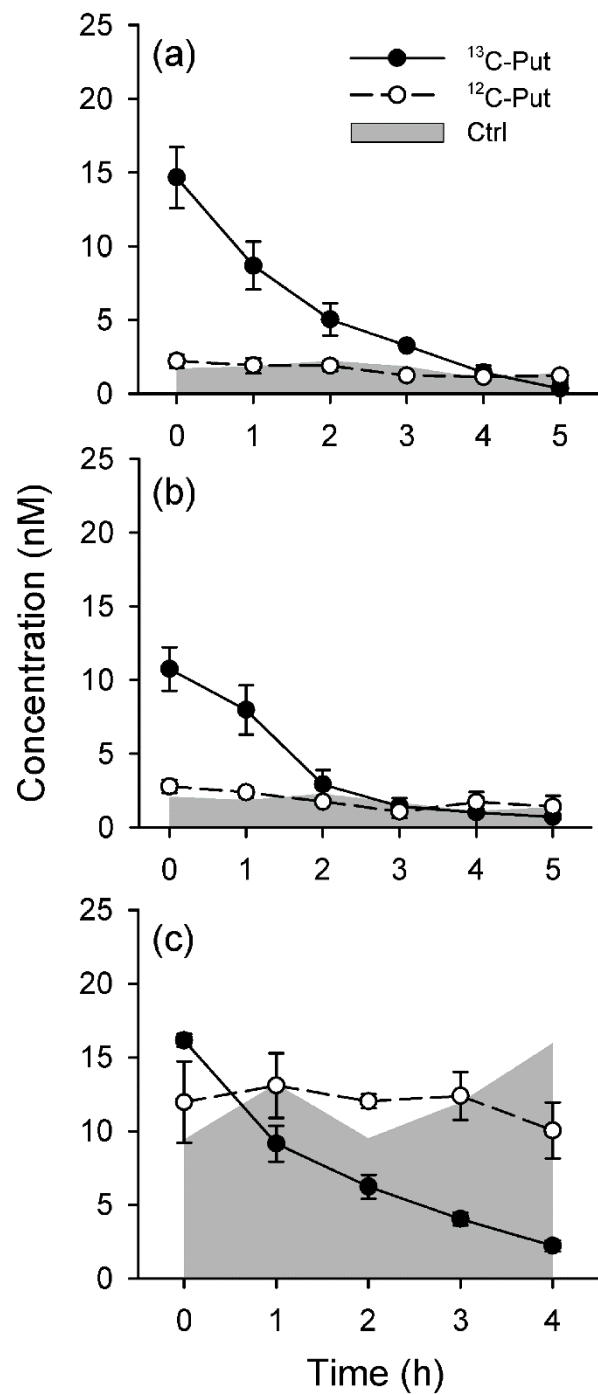


Fig. 3

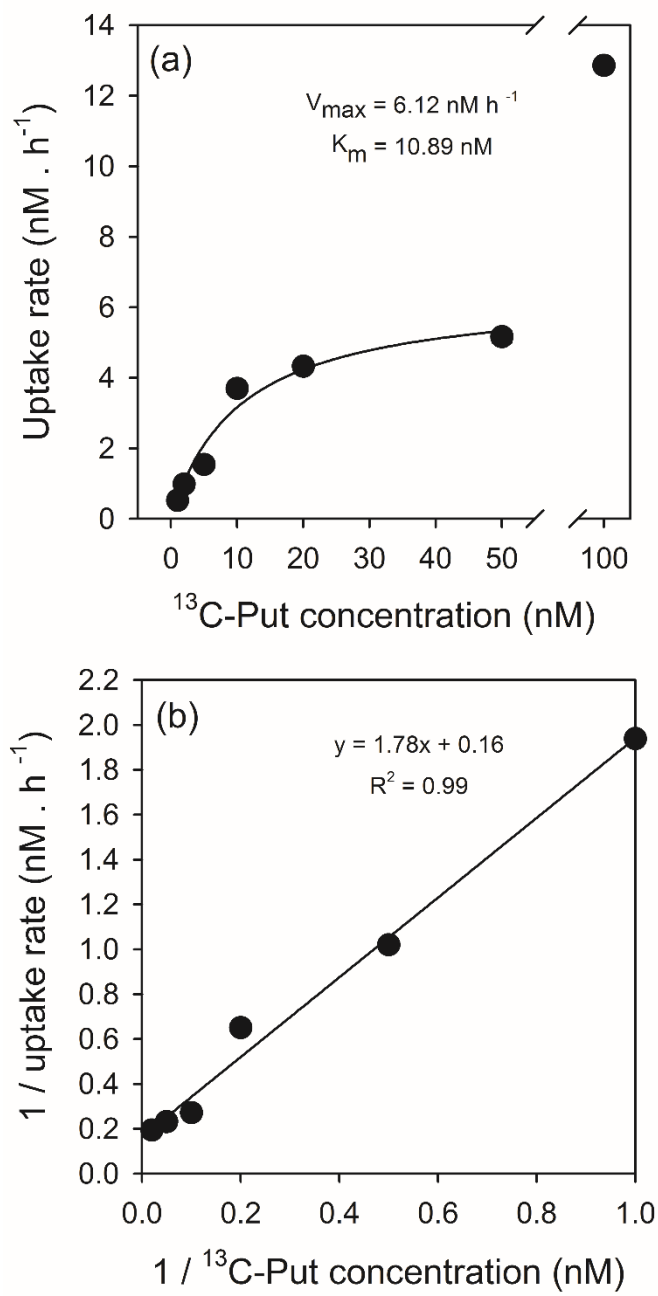


Fig. 4

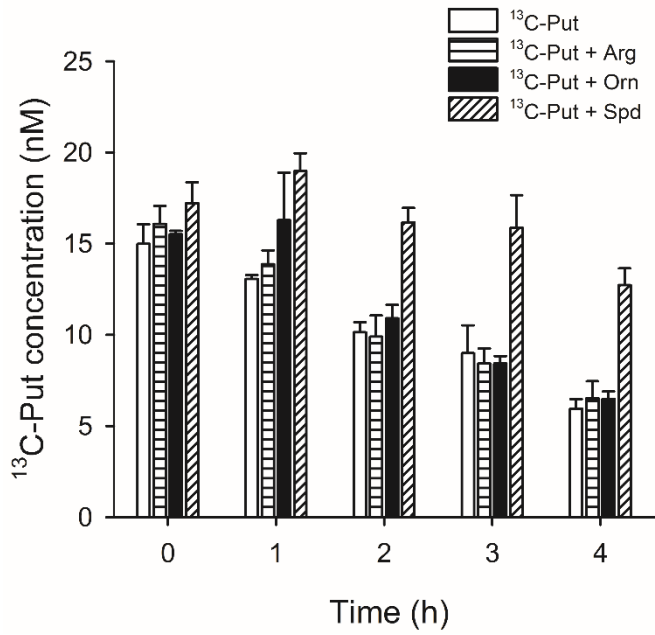


Fig. 5

Polyamine variability and bacterial assimilation

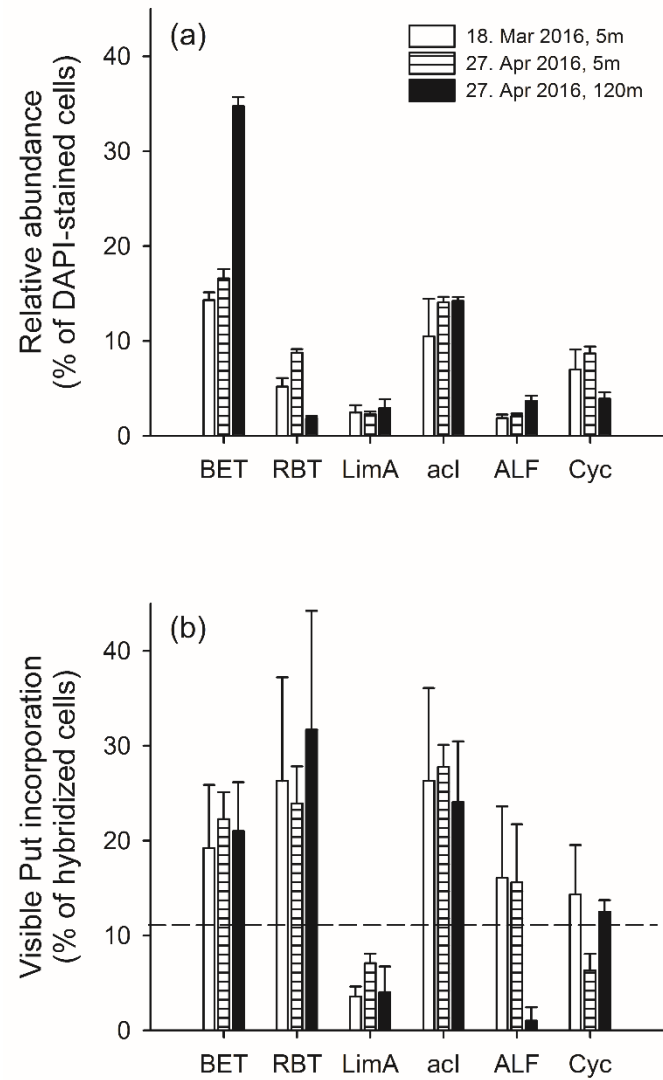


Fig. 6

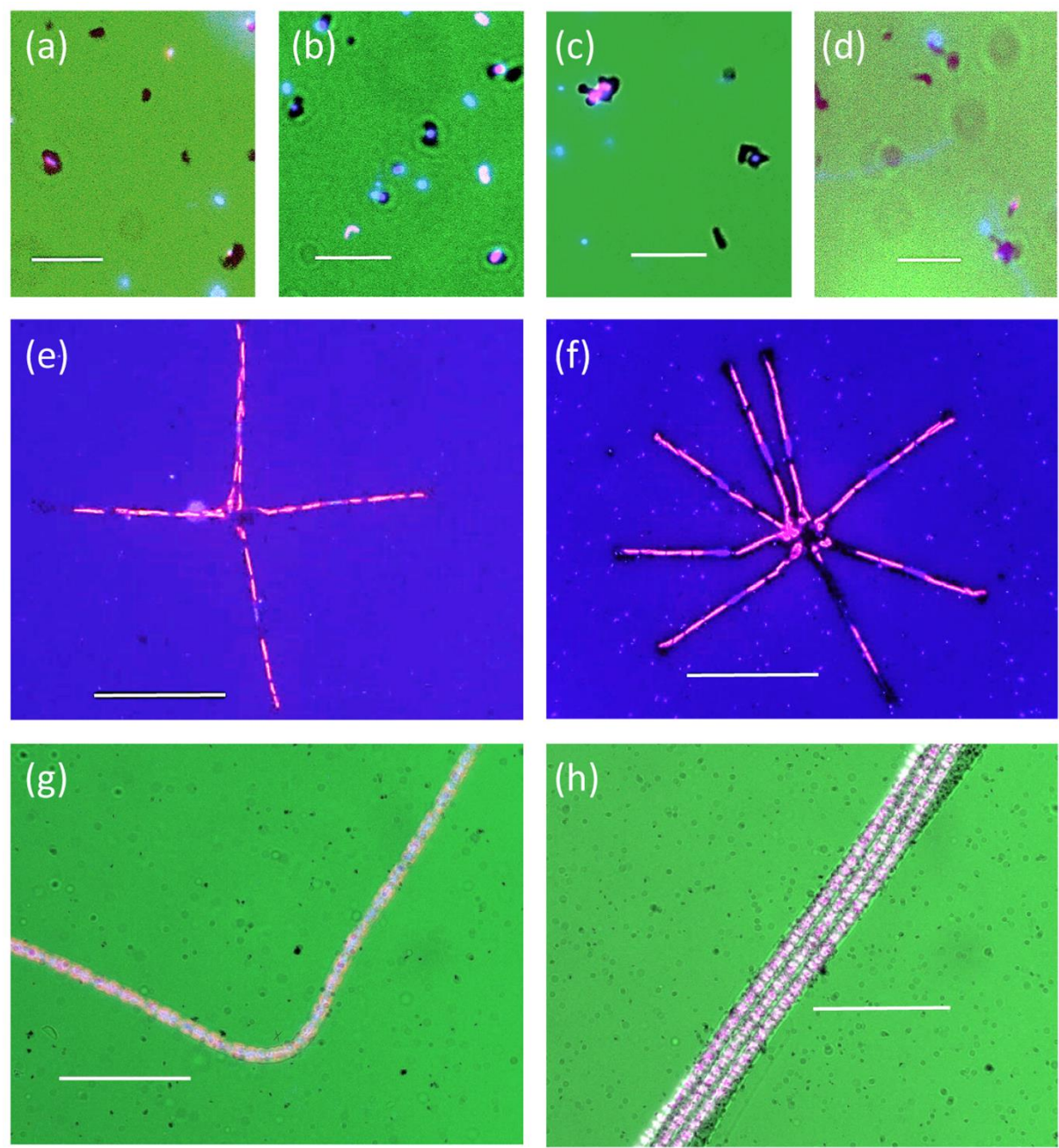
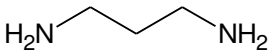
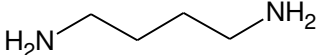
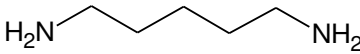
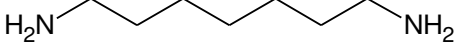
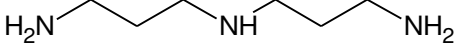
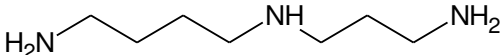
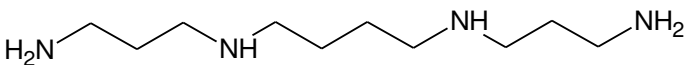


Fig. 7

Supplemental Information**Suppl. Table 1:** Structures, formulas and molar masses of polyamines used in this study.

Polyamine	Structure	Formula	Molar mass (g mol ⁻¹)
diaminopropane		C ₃ H ₁₀ N ₂	74.13
putrescine		C ₄ H ₁₂ N ₂	88.15
cadaverine		C ₅ H ₁₄ N ₂	102.18
diaminoheptane		C ₇ H ₁₈ N ₂	130.23
norspermidine		C ₆ H ₁₇ N ₃	131.22
spermidine		C ₇ H ₁₉ N ₃	145.25
spermine		C ₁₀ H ₂₆ N ₄	202.35

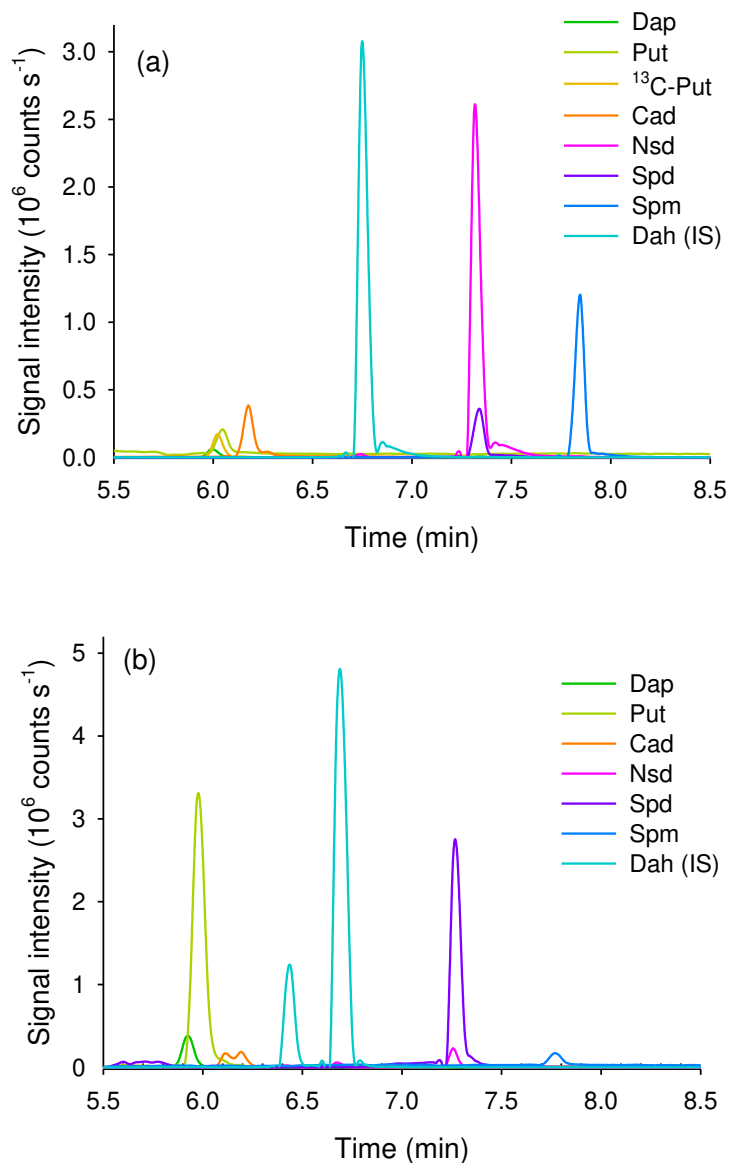
Suppl. Table 2: Mass spectrometry parameters for detection of polyamines. Transitions (pairs of precursor and product ions) and the corresponding declustering potential (DP), collision energy (CE), cell exit potential (CXP) parameters, limits of detection (LOD) and quantification (LOQ). Dap = diaminopentane, Put = putrescine, Cad = cadaverine, Dah = diaminoheptane, Nsd = norspermidine, Spd = spermidine, Spm = spermine, IS = internal standard. Transitions used for quantification are highlighted in bold. nd = not determined

	DP	Transitions	CE	CXP	LOD	LOQ
Compound	(V)	(m/z)	(V)	(V)	(nM)	(nM)
Dap	60	75/58	15	15	0.2	1.0
Put	20	89/72	15	15	0.2	0.5
		89/31	35	14	nd	nd
¹³ C-Put	20	93/76	15	15	0.5	1.0
		93/32	35	14	nd	nd
Cad	20	103/86	15	18	0.2	0.5
		103/69	25	18	nd	nd
Dah (IS)	90	131/114	16	15	nd	nd
Nsd	50	132/115	17	15	0.1	1.0
		132/98	22	20	nd	nd
Spd	70	146/112	20	20	0.05	0.5
		146/129	15	28	nd	nd
Spm	70	203/129	17	18	0.1	1.0
		203/112	28	20	nd	nd

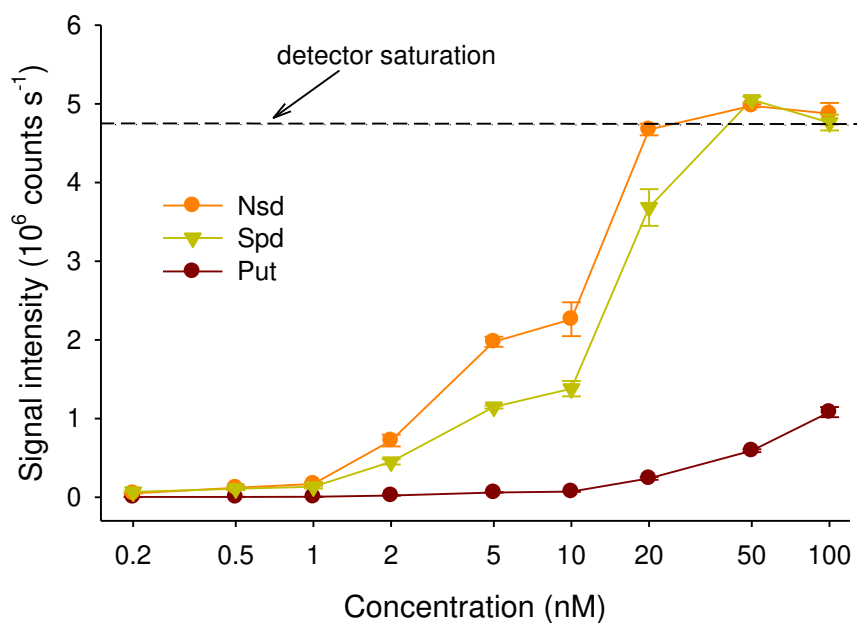
Suppl. Table 3: DFPA concentrations in surface samples from different habitats on 18 February 2016 and the corresponding recovery (means of duplicates \pm range) measured with ^{13}C -labeled putrescine added to samples at 1 and 10 nM levels. Dap = diaminopropane, Put = putrescine, Nsd = norspermidine, Spd = spermidine, Spm = spermine, nd = not determined

	Dap	Put	Nsd	Spd	Spm	Recovery (%)
Habitat	(nM)	(nM)	(nM)	(nM)	(nM)	1 nM / 10 nM
Lake Zurich	2.5	18.8	0.3	1.3	0.3	101 \pm 4 / 97 \pm 3
Türlersee	2.3	9.5	0.1	0.5	0.2	90 \pm 12 / 98 \pm 1
Hüttnersee	1.5	10.4	0.2	0.7	0.1	124 \pm 5 / 123 \pm 3
Thalwiler Waldweiher	1.7	10.6	0.1	0.6	0.1	108 \pm 4 / 101 \pm 9
Seleger Moor	0.2	0.5	nd	1.4	0.1	121 \pm 20 / 109 \pm 5

Suppl. Fig. 1: Ion chromatograms of (a) a mixture of 7 polyamines (20 nM each) in Milli-Q water, and (b) a biomass extract from the planktonic diatom *Fragilaria sp.* isolated from Lake Zurich. Dap: diaminopropane, Put: putrescine, ^{13}C -Put: ^{13}C -putrescine, Cad: cadaverine, Nsd: norspermidine, Spd: spermidine, Spm: spermine, Dah: diaminoheptane (internal standard).



Suppl. Fig. 2: Signal intensities of selected pairs of precursor and product ions (transitions) specific to norspermidine (Nsd), spermidine (Spd) and putrescine (Put) as a function of their concentration (0.2 – 100 nM, note a logarithmic scale of the x-axis). Signal intensity of Nsd and Spd did not increase at concentrations >50 nM due to detector saturation indicated by a horizontal dashed line, whereas a continuous increase in signal intensity was observed for Put. Values are means of 3 replicates. Error bars show standard deviation.



Suppl. Fig. 3: Temporal changes in the concentrations of natural (^{12}C -Put) and isotopically labeled putrescine (^{13}C -Put) in incubation experiment V conducted with filtered ($0.8\ \mu\text{m}$ membrane) epilimnetic samples (5 m) from Lake Zurich in July 2016. ^{13}C -Put was amended at a concentration of 10 nM. Controls that were not amended with ^{13}C -Put show concentrations of natural putrescine only. Values are means of 3 replicates. Error bars show standard deviation (range is shown for controls).

